# ORIGINAL PAPER

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# Isolation, characterization and mapping of simple sequence repeat markers in zoysiagrass (*Zoysia* spp.)

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Abstract The genus Zoysia consists of 16 species that are naturally distributed on sea coasts and grasslands around the Pacific. Of these, Zoysia japonica, Zoysia matrella, and Zoysia tenuifolia are grown extensively as turfgrasses, and Z. japonica is also used as forage grass in Japan and other countries in East Asia. To develop simple sequence repeat (SSR) markers for zoysiagrass (Zoysia spp.), we used four SSR-enriched genomic libraries to isolate 1,163 unique SSR clones. All four libraries contained a high percentage of perfect clones, ranging from 67.1 to 96.0%, and compound clones occurred with higher frequencies in libraries A (28.6%)and D (11.6%). From these clones, we developed 1,044 SSR markers when we tested all 1,163 SSR primer pairs. Using all 1,044 SSR markers, we tested one screening panel consisting of eight Zoysia clones for testing PCR amplifications, from which five unrelated clones, among the eight, were used for polymorphism assessment, and found that the polymorphic information content ranged from 0 (monomorphic loci) to 0.88. Of the 1,044 SSR markers, 170 were segregated in our mapping population and we mapped 161 on existing amplified fragment length polymorphism-based linkage groups, using this mapping population. These SSR markers will provide an ideal marker system to assist with gene targeting, quantitative trait locus mapping, variety or species identification, and marker-assisted selection in Zoysia species.

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### Introduction

The genus Zoysia consists of 16 species that are naturally distributed on sea coasts and grasslands around the Pacific. Five species have been identified from southern Hokkaido to the southwest islands in Japan (Kitamura 1989). Of these, Zoysia japonica Steud., Zoysia matrella Merr., and Zoysia tenuifolia Willd. are utilized extensively as turfgrasses, and Z. japonica is also used as forage grass in Japan and other countries in East Asia (Shoji 1983; Fukuoka 1989). Zoysiagrass has a chromosome number of 40 and is mostly a cross-pollinated, tetraploid species with a small genome size (421 Mb for Z. *japonica*) (Forbes 1952; Arumuganathan et al. 1999). Two molecular linkage maps have been constructed from interspecific hybrids of Z. japonica and Z. matrella (Ebina et al. 1999; Yaneshita et al. 1999) on the basis of restriction fragment length polymorphism (RFLP) and amplified fragment length polymorphism (AFLP) markers, and we have reported an AFLP-based highdensity linkage map of Z. japonica (Cai et al. 2004). However, RFLP analysis requires a large amount of genomic DNA and is time-consuming and costly, and AFLP markers are dominant and AFLP-based map information is difficult to transfer to a different mapping population. Therefore, more easily used PCR-based, codominant markers will be needed for the Zoysia species.

The genomes of all eukaryotes contain a class of sequences termed simple sequence repeats (SSRs) (Tautz et al. 1986) or microsatellites (Litt and Luty 1989). SSRs, with tandem repeats of a basic motif of  $\leq 6$  bp, have emerged as important sources of ubiquitous genetic markers for many eukaryotic genomes (Wang et al. 1994). Although the development of SSR markers takes time and cost, unlike other markers, including RFLP, random amplified polymorphic DNA (RAPD) and AFLP markers, SSR markers have the advantages of being PCR-based, multi-allelic, co-dominant, and highly polymorphic. Therefore, SSRs have been used in many studies, such as linkage map construction (Röder et al. 1998), gene tagging (Peng et al. 1999; Xie et al. 2002), genetic diversity (Fahima et al. 2002; Huang et al. 2002), and evolutionary studies (Matsuoka et al. 2002). SSR markers have been developed in many plant species, including most major crops such as rice (Wu and Tanksley 1993; Akagi et al. 1996; Panaud et al. 1996; Chen et al. 1997, 2002; Temnykh et al. 2000, 2001; McCouch et al. 2002), maize (Taramino and Tingey 1996; Sharopova et al. 2002), sorghum (Bhattramakki et al. 2000; Kong et al. 2000; Schloss et al. 2002), wheat (Röder et al. 1995, 1998; Gao et al. 2003), barley (Ramsay et al. 2000; Kantety et al. 2002), and other important economic plant species (Jarret et al. 1997; Cordeiro et al. 2000; Danin-Poleg et al. 2001; Tang et al. 2002). Recently, SSR markers have been developed in forage crops such as perennial ryegrass (Jones et al. 2001), Italian ryegrass (Hirata et al. 2000), white clover (Kolliker et al. 2001; Barrett et al. 2004), timothy (Cai et al. 2003), and tall fescue (Saha et al. 2004, 2005). A small number of SSR markers in zoysiagrass have been reported (Tsuruta et al. 2003).

Here, we report the isolation, characterization, and development of 1,044 Zoysia SSR markers from four SSR-enriched genomic libraries. One screening panel, consisting of eight Zoysia clones, was tested with all 1,044 SSR markers to detect polymorphism levels and identify a set of loci suitable for framework mapping. We also mapped 170 SSR markers on previously constructed AFLP map.

#### **Materials and methods**

#### Plant materials

A Zoysia clone, F08, which is an  $F_1$  plant selected from a cross between a Z. japonica clone and a Z. matrella clone, was used to construct the SSR-enriched genomic library because we wanted to develop SSR markers that could be used for both Z. japonica and Z. matrella. A panel of Zoysia clones, native to Japan, was used for testing PCR amplification and five of them were used for polymorphism assessment. These clones were Tawarayama Kita 1 (from Kumamoto, located at South part of Japan), Syuri 1 (from Okinawa, located at South island of Japan), F02, Muroran 2 (from Hokkaido, located at North part of Japan), Matsushima 5 (from Kumamoto), F08, A29 (from Iwate, located at North part of Japan), and Matsushima 2 (from Kumamoto). All eight clones came from the collection of the Japan Grassland Agriculture and Forage Seed Association at the Forage Crop Research Institute. Among them, F02 is a selfed progenitor of Tawarayama Kita 1, F08 is the F<sub>1</sub> of Muroran 2 and Matsushima 5, and, according to our results of SSR analysis, Matsushima 2 is most probably same as Matsushima 5, which was collected from the same site.

Based on the judgment of morphological characters, Matsushima 5 and Matsushima 2 were classified as Z. *matrella*, while the other five clones, except F08, are Z. *japonica*.

A total of 78 individuals were randomly selected among the selfed progeny of clone F02 to establish a mapping population. F02 was initially considered to be a clone selected from the progeny of a cross between ecotypes 'Tawarayama Kita 1' and 'Syuri 1.' Our AFLP data, however, suggest that this clone is most probably a selfed progeny of the female parent, 'Tawarayama Kita 1,' (Cai et al. 2004).

Genomic DNA was extracted from young leaves by the CTAB method (Murray and Thompson 1980).

Construction and sequence analysis of SSR-enriched genomic libraries

Four SSR-enriched genomic libraries (CA, GA, AAG, and AAT) were constructed by the Genetic Identification Services (GIS, Chatsworth, CA, USA) from the *Zoysia* clone F08, and the sequences (about 700 bp long) were obtained at Dragon Genomics (Yokkaichi, Mie, Japan) (details as described in Cai et al. 2003). After sequencing, the Phred quality scores (logarithmically linked to error probabilities, ranging from 4 to about 60) (Brent et al. 1998) were calculated using software Phred (Codon Code Inc., Version 0.000925c), and clones with a Phred quality score > 15 and longer than 100 bp were used for primer design.

Sequence checking and primer design

Sequences containing at least five di-, tri-, tetra-, or penta-nucleotide repeats were selected. The SSR structure was defined in terms of four categories, according to Jones et al. (2001): perfect repeats of the form  $(N_1N_2)x$  or  $(N_1N_2N_3)x$ ; imperfect repeats of the form (e.g.,  $N_1N_2N_1$ - $N_2N_2N_1N_2N_2N_2N_1N_2$ ,...,etc.); interrupted repeats of the form  $(N_1N_2)x(N)y(N_1N_2)z$  or  $(N_1N_2N_3)x(N)y$   $(N_1N_2N_3)z$ ; and compound repeats of the form  $(N_1N_2)x(N_3N_4)y$ ,  $(N_1N_2N_3)x(N_4N_5N_6)y$ , or  $(N_1N_2)x(N_3N_4N_5)y$ .

All sequences containing SSRs were checked to identify duplicates, using Sequencher 4.02 software (Gene Codes Corporation, Ann Arbor, MI, USA). Only unique SSR clones, with sufficiently long flanking sequences (>15 bp) to generate both forward and reverse primers, were used for primer design. Primer pairs (mostly with length of 15–25 bp), flanking the SSR motif, were designed with the program Primer 0.5 (Lander, Cambridge, MA, USA). The annealing temperature was set at 55°C.

#### Database searches

All unique SSR sequences were searched against the nucleotide databases, using BLAST algorithms (Altschul

et al. 1997). The BLAST network service provided at the DDBJ was used to identify the relationships between the SSR sequences for known genes. BLASTX searches were run on 28 August 2005, and a bits score >80 and *E*-value  $\leq 1 \times 10^{-10}$  was considered to be significant.

Polymerase chain reaction and fragment analysis

An M13-tagged forward primer (Rampling et al. 2001) method was used in the PCR reaction. The primers used were 5 pmol labeled M13 (-29) primers (IRD700- or IRD800-CACGACGTTGTAAAACGAC; Li-COR, Lincoln, Nebraska, USA), 1 pmol 5'-tagged forward primer, and 5 pmol reverse primer. The 5'-tagged forward primer, for each particular SSR, had the M13 sequence added to its 5' end.

SSRs were amplified under the following PCR conditions: a 'touchdown' PCR consisting of  $94^{\circ}$ C for 5 min; two cycles of  $94^{\circ}$ C for 1 min,  $65^{\circ}$ C for 1 min, and 72°C for 1.5 min; 10 cycles of  $94^{\circ}$ C for 1 min,  $65^{-}55^{\circ}$ C for 1 min decreasing by 1°C/cycle, and 72°C for 1.5 min; 30 cycles of  $94^{\circ}$ C for 1 min,  $55^{\circ}$ C for 1 min, and 72°C for 1.5 min; followed by 72°C for 7 min and 4°C as the holding step.

To detect SSR markers, the PCR products were analyzed in 6% denatured acrylamide gel with a LI-COR sequencer (LI-COR, Lincoln, Nebraska, USA).

#### Primer evaluation

All primer pairs were screened on the panel of eight *Zoysia* clones for their ability to yield an amplification product of the expected size and to detect polymorphisms. We calculated the number of alleles and polymorphic information content (PIC; Hedrick 1985; Saal and Wricke 1999, Jones et al. 2001) of primers that detected polymorphisms. The formula of PIC is  $PIC = H = 1 - \sum p_i^2$ , where  $p_i$  is the frequency of the *i*-th allele out of the total number of alleles in the sample. Five unrelated clones – Tawarayama Kita 1, Syuri 1, Muroran 2, Matsushima 5, and A29 – were used for PIC calculation.

#### Data scoring and linkage analysis

Since the mapping population was derived from the selfed progeny of one clone, only two types of data were possible (only one band appeared in the parent clone and segregated as 3:1 in the population or two bands appeared in the parent clone and segregated as 1:2:1 in the population). Most SSR markers were co-dominant markers, segregating as 1:2:1, but the linkage phase was not known for either type of data. Therefore, the mapping data were scored as cross-pollination data, according to the definition of JoinMap 3.0 (Stam 1993). The linkage map construction was performed with

JoinMap 3.0 under the cross-pollination algorism, which can auto-detect the linkage phase from the marker data. The parameters of LOD = 5.0 and a maximum distance of 30 cM were used to group linked markers and the Kosambi mapping function was used (Kosambi 1944). The linkage map was drawn using MapChart 2.0 (Voorrips 2002).

#### **Results and discussion**

### SSR isolation

We sequenced 4,000 clones (1,000 from each of four libraries). Of these, 3,268 clones (81.7%) contained SSR sequences showing a high level of redundancy (2,500 clones, 76.5% of SSR-containing clones). After we had excluded a few clones whose sequences flanking the SSR motifs were too short to allow us to design both forward and reverse primers, we identified 768 unique SSR clones (23.5% of SSR-containing clones) that we used to design primers (Table 1). The percentage SSR marker isolation efficacy (23.5% of SSR-containing clones) was lower than the results obtained in sunflower (Tang et al. 2002) and Italian ryegrass (Hirata et al. 2000), through the use of SSR-enriched libraries produced by GIS; perhaps because our libraries have a very high level of redundancy.

Our level of redundancy was very high—(76.5%)higher than that in other species (24% in *Melaleuca alternifolia*, Rossetto et al. 1999; 16% in *Lolium perenne*, Jones et al. 2001; <1% in sugarcane, Cordeiro et al. 2000; 40.8% in timothy, Cai et al. 2003). Redundancy was mostly found within libraries. This redundancy was most probably caused by clone duplication, especially in libraries A, C, D.

The percentage of unique SSR clones in library B (motif GA/TC, 49.9%) was higher than in the others (12.2–16.0%); this result agreed with that found in timothy (Cai et al. 2003). On the basis of the above results, we sequenced another 2,000 clones (called B2) from library B and isolated 395 more unique SSR clones, which were then used to design primers.

Over 1,163 unique SSR sequences were searched against the nucleotide databases of DDBJ, and a total of 108 sequences showed significant homology with sequences of other plant species; of them, most showed significant homology with rice genomic or cDNA sequences with unknown functions, but 26 showed significant homology with genes (Table 2), and no sequences showed significant homology with transposable elements.

#### Characterization of SSR loci

SSR loci were classified by repeat type and structure (Table 1). All four libraries contained perfect clones at

Table 1	Efficacy of S	SR isolation, fre	squency of repeat types	s, and working p	rimers from	four Zoysia	SSR librarie	S			
Library	Motif	SSR clones	Unique SSR clones	Repeat type				Primer evaluat	ion		
				Perfect	Compound	Imperfect	Interrupted	Polymorphic	Monomorphic	Multiple band	No amplification
A	CA/TG	873 (87.3%)	$140 (16.0\%)^{a}$	94 (67.1%)	40 (28.6%)	1 (0.7%)	5 (3.6%)	125 (89.3%)	7 (5.0%)	1 (0.7%)	7 (5.0%)
В	GA/TC	818 (81.8%)	408(49.9%)	371(90.9%)	23 (5.6%)	1(0.2%)	13 (3.2%)	380 (93.1%)	3 (0.7%)	2(0.5%)	23 (5.6%)
U	AAG/TTC	801(80.1%)	125 (15.6%)	120(96.0%)	5 (4.0%)	0(0.0%)	0(0.0%)	82 (65.6%)	20(16.0%)	18 (14.4%)	5(4.0%)
D	AAT/TTA	776 (77.6%)	95 (12.2%)	73 (76.8%)	11 (11.6%)	7 (7.4%)	4 (4.2%)	78 (82.1%)	3 (3.2%)	10(10.5%)	4 (4.2%)
B2	CA/TG		395	357(90.4%)	22 (5.6%)	1(0.3%)	15 (3.8%)	338 (85.6%)	8 (2.0%)	4 (1.0%)	45 (11.4%)
Total	-	3,268 (81.7%) <sup>b</sup>	1,163	1,015 (87.3%)	101 (8.7%)	10(0.9%)	37 (3.2%)	1,003 (86.2%)	41 (3.5%)	35 (3.0%)	84 (7.2%)
<sup>a</sup> % of : <sup>b</sup> Except	SSR-containin B2	g clones									

very high frequencies, with an average of 87.3% (ranging from 67.1 to 96.0%). Compound repeats were contained at higher frequencies in libraries A (28.6%) and D (11.6%) than in libraries B (5.6%), and C (4.0%). Imperfect clones were contained mostly in library D (7.4%). Table 3 shows the proportions of different repeat

motifs in each of the structural categories, by library. In all four libraries, the predominant motif was the expected type, e.g., CA/TG for A, GA/TC for B, AAG/ TTC for C, and AAT/TTA for D. In the most frequent dinucleotide- and trinucleotide-motif-containing perfect clones, the average repeat numbers were 16.3 (CA/TG), 18.7 (GA/TC), 10.1 (AAG/TTC), and 11.5 (AAT/TTA). The average repeat numbers in compound clones were 28.9 (15–47) in library A and 29.1 (9–45) in library B (average of B and B2) (data not shown).

As pointed out by Cardle et al. (2000), the most common dinucleotide motif found in plant genomic sequences is AT/TA, followed by GA/CT and CA/GT, and the most common trinucleotide motifs are AAT/ TAA and ATC/TAG. Although AAG/TTC dominates in *Arabidopsis thaliana*. Although AT/TA is the most common dinucleotide motif in plant genomic sequences, this motif is not usually used in SSR-enrichment procedures, owing to its self-complementary nature; therefore, we did not use AT/TA in our study. Of 658 perfect SSRs (except B2), the motifs occurring at the highest rates were GA/TC (57.3%), CA/GT (14.3%), AAG/ TTC (16.9%), and AAT/TAA (10.3%). These results are close to those reported by Cardle et al. (2000) and Cai et al. (2003).

## Primer evaluation

Of the 1,163 primer pairs tested, 1,003 (86.2%) could amplify polymorphic products (example shown in Fig. 1); in the eight *Zoysia* clones used, with product



**Fig. 1** PCR products amplified by the loci *ZB02N16* (**a**) and *ZB03B02* (**b**) in eight clones of zoysiagrass. *Lane 1* Matsushima 2; *lane 2* A29; *lane 3* F08; *lane 4* Matsushima 5; *lane 5* Muroran 2; *lane 6* F02; *lane 7* Syuri 1; *lane 8* Tawarayama Kita 1

Table 2 High-scoring matches against the DDBJ databases by BLAST search

Clone	Matched clone	Putative identification	Bits score	E value
ZB01N19	AY224508	<i>Oryza sativa</i> (japonica cultivar-group) isolate 3,1185 putative zinc finger protein mRNA, partial cds	121	2.00E-24
ZB02G20	AB029510	O. sativa mRNA for small GTP-binding protein OsRac3, complete cds	206	4.00E-50
ZB02H22	AY163379	Zea mays putative ROP family GTPase ROP2 gene, complete cds	196	5.00E-47
ZB02K07	AY581830	Cynodon dactylon putative Rieske Fe-S precursor protein mRNA, partial cds	103	5.00E-19
ZB03B03	AF466286	O. sativa putative G-box binding protein mRNA, complete cds	103	5.00E-19
ZB03B24	AF112149	Z. mays MADS box protein 2 (mads2) mRNA, complete cds	145	1.00E-31
ZB03E06	AF033263	Z. mays nonphototropic hypocotyl 1 (nph1) mRNA, complete cds	103	3.00E-19
ZB03G12	AY946350	O. sativa microRNA miR396d precursor, gene, partial sequence	109	7.00E-21
ZB03I20	AF244685	Z. mays glutathione S-transferase GST 20 mRNA, complete cds	121	2.00E - 24
ZB03L04	AY163379	Z. mays putative ROP family GTPase ROP2 gene, complete cds	182	6.00E - 43
ZB03M23	AY359572	Z. mays B73 acc oxidase (ACO15) gene, complete cds	125	1.00E - 25
ZB04C05	AY220669	O. sativa box C/D snoRNA J37.1, complete sequence	103	5.00E - 19
ZB04N13	AJ440217	O. sativa a6 gene for plasma membrane $H$ + -ATPase	521	1.00E - 145
ZB05A15	AJ938073	O. sativa (indica cultivar-group) mRNA for Type A response regulator 4 (rr4 gene)	115	1.00E - 22
ZB06A14	AY312574	<i>Deschampsia antarctica</i> Rubisco activase beta form precursor (RCA2) mRNA, complete cds; nuclear gene for chloroplast product	107	2.00E-20
ZB06D06	AY312169	Z. mays homeobox transcription factor KNOTTED1 (kn1) gene, complete cds	97	9.00E-17
ZB06F08	AY581830	C. dactylon putative Rieske Fe-S precursor protein mRNA, partial cds	186	4.00E - 44
ZB08J13	AF435642	O. sativa CSLC7 mRNA, partial cds	167	4.00E - 38
ZB08K21	AY870607	O. sativa (japonica cultivar-group) WRKY23 mRNA, complete cds	176	2.00E - 41
ZB08M09	AY180106	Z. mays cultivar B73 liguleless2 gene, complet cds	125	9.00E - 26
ZB08O01	AF112149	Z. mays MADS box protein 2 (mads2) mRNA, complete cds	147	3.00E - 32
ZC01C22	AB125306	<i>O. sativa</i> (japonica cultivar-group) SAPK5 mRNA for serine/threonine protein kinase SAPK5, complete cds	159	6.00E-36
ZC01G15	AY323481	O. sativa (japonica cultivar-group) ribosomal L9-like protein mRNA, complete cds	159	8.00E-36
ZC02L16	L05934	Z. mays catalase (Cat3) gene, complete cds	88	2.00E-14
ZT-A124	AF470066	Sorghum bicolor P-type R2R3 Myb protein (Myb27) gene, partial cds	115	1.00E - 22
ZT-C12	AF332176	Z. mays beta-expansin 3 (expB3) mRNA, partial cds	127	2.00E-26

size ranging from 70 to 350 bp (mostly in 100–200 bp), 41 (3.5%) amplified monomorphic products, 35 (3.0%) amplified multiple bands, and 84 (7.2%) amplified no bands (Table 1). The percentage of working primers (polymorphic and monomorphic) in our study was 89.7%, similar to those in ryegrass and sunflower (Hirata et al. 2000; Jones et al. 2001; Tang et al. 2002), but higher than in wheat, barley, and timothy (Röder et al. 1998; Ramsay et al. 2000; Cai et al. 2003). Among the 1,003 working polymorphic primer pairs, 51 (5.1%) amplified products in only *Z. matrella*. Most markers had a large number of alleles, ranging from 3 to 9 (supplementary electronic material Table 4). The PIC values ranged from 0 (monomorphic locus) to 0.88 (as shown in Table 4), and the average of PIC values were increased with an increase in the allele numbers, however, the PIC and the numbers of alleles did not increase with an increase in the repeat lengths.

From the results of the primer test for the eight *Zoysia* clones, it was suggested that F08 is a true hybrid  $F_1$  of Muroran 2 and Matsushima 5, and F02 is a selfed progenitor of Tawarayama Kita 1. In addition, Matsushima 2 is most probably same as Matsushima 5 because the two clones showed the same band pattern in all 1,003 polymorphic SSR markers tested. The above results suggested the usefulness of these markers for germplasm

Table 3 Frequencies of motif types in the perfect SSR isolated from four Zoysia SSR-enriched libraries

Motif	Library A	Library B	Library C	Library D	Library B2	Total (%)	Average repeat number (range)
CA/TG	92 (97.9%)	1 (0.3%)	1 (0.8%)		3 (0.8%)	97 (9.6%)	16.3 (15–47)
GA/TC	2 (2.1%)	370 (99.7%)	2 (1.7%)	3 (4.1%)	346 (96.9%)	723 (71.2%)	18.7 (9-45)
AAG/TTC			111 (92.5%)		4 (1.1%)	115 (11.3%)	10.1 (4–94)
AAT/TTA				68 (93.2%)		68 (6.7%)	11.5 (6-23)
TCA					1 (0.3%)	1 (0.1%)	6.0
CAA				1 (1.4%)		1 (0.1%)	4.0
CAT			1 (0.8%)	× /		1 (0.1%)	5.0
AA			2(1.7%)			2 (0.2%)	21 (18–24)
GAGAA			· · /	1 (1.4%)		1 (0.1%)	15.0
CAG				× /	1 (0.3%)	1 (0.1%)	6.0
GGA					1 (0.3%)	1 (0.1%)	8.0
TCC			3 (2.5%)		1 (0.3%)	4 (0.4%)	7.0 (5–13)
Total	94	371	120	73	357	1,015 (100%)	



**Fig. 2** Linkage map of the *Z. japonica* mapping population based on SSR and AFLP markers. The linkage groups are represented as *vertical bars*, with their numbers (according to Cai et al. 2004) indicated at the *top* and the names of the markers on the *right*. The

collection management and also for hybrid confirmation because selfing ratio of some *Zoysia* species (e.g., *Z. japonica*) was high and the true hybrid was difficult to distinguish based on morphology characters.

## Mapping of SSR loci

Of the 1,003 polymorphic primer pairs, 170 (16.9%) amplified two bands in the parent (clone F02) of our mapping population. These 170 primer pairs detected 172 loci in the mapping population. Of these 172 mapped loci, 150 were mapped to the 24 existing AFLP-based linkage groups (LGs), 11 were mapped to six newly detected LGs (mostly small groups), and other 11 could not be mapped to any LGs. Among the 172 segregating loci, 10 showed segregating distortion at P=0.01 and five were mapped in an interval of 21.7 cM on LG 3–19, which also included other distorted AFLP markers in this region.

newly detected LGs were named N1 to N6. Distances (cM) between markers are shown to the *left. Underlined* markers are SSR markers (*asterisked* SSR markers showed significant segregation distortion at P=0.01) developed in this study; others are AFLP markers

Five pairs of existing AFLP-based LGs were joined into five LGs by adding the SSR data; e.g., AFLP LGs 1 and 25 were joined into LG 1–25 (Fig. 2). The SSR– AFLP-based linkage map consisted of 540 markers and covered a total map length of 1,187 cM, with an average spacing of 2.2 cM between markers. Mapped SSR markers were not spaced evenly throughout all LGs: in some LGs, only one or two markers were mapped (e.g., on LGs 4 and 12). Clusters of SSR markers in LGs were also found on LGs 1, 3–19, 5–9, and 6.

The ratio of polymorphic SSR markers in our mapping population, 16.9%, is very low; probably because our mapping population is an S<sub>2</sub> generation created by two generations of selfing of a single plant from only one clone, 'Tawarayama kita 1,' of Z. *japonica*, and Z. *japonica* has a higher selfing ratio than Z. matrella (Cai et al. 2004). However, if the mapping population is an F<sub>2</sub> population derived from the selfed progeny of other clones of Z. matrella, like Matsushima 5 or F08, the ratio of segregating loci can reach 30%, and an even 164



Fig. 2 (Contd.)

higher ratio (> 50%) can be expected in two-way pseudo-testcross  $F_1$  populations (our unpublished data). In fact, the  $F_2$  population derived from the selfed Matsushima 5 was under-construction.

#### Genomic constitution of Zoysia species

In autopolyploid species, for example, hexaploid timothy, most SSR markers could amplify up to six alleles in one sample alone (Cai et al. 2003). In contrast, among our 1,003 polymorphic SSR markers, only one primer pair (ZA01B19) could amplify four bands with the same sensitivity of the signal, but this marker was mapped as a single locus in our mapping population. We found two other loci (ZB06D13 and ZB08L03) that could detect two loci each, and both loci from the same SSR primer pairs were mapped to different LGs; but the sensitivities of the bands were not same and one locus was much weaker than the other. As we reported earlier(Cai et al. 2004), we were unable to find any double duplex AFLP markers segregating 35:1, which is the ratio usually found in the  $F_2$  progeny of autotetraploids within the same mapping population. The above results suggest that there is no evidence showing that the Zoysia species are autotetraploids.

Working with an interspecific mapping population, Yaneshita et al. (1999) reported that five pairs of LGs shared a series of duplicated loci with approximately the same order in several Zoysia species, these results mean that there are some homologous chromosome pairs present in the Zoysia species. In most typical allopolyploids with homologous chromosomes, such as wheat, oats, and tall fescue, most SSR primer pairs can amplify more than one locus, and the loci amplified by the same SSR primer are mapped on homologous chromosomes (Röder et al. 1998; Li et al. 2000; Saha et al. 2004, 2005, and our unpublished data). However, as mentioned above, we could not detect duplicate loci using the SSR markers developed in this study. The results suggested that the Zoysia species may inherit mostly like diploid, rather than tetraploids with homologous chromosomes. Since detecting duplicate loci using PCR-based markers like SSR and AFLP will need a higher level of sequence homologues than using RFLP markers, this may be one of the reasons why we could not find any duplicate loci in the Zoysia genome, using SSR markers.

We have, thus, reported the isolation and characterization of a large number of SSR sequences and the development of 1,044 SSR markers for zoysiagrass, and mapped 161 markers on the Z. *japonica* mapping population. The most of 1,044 SSR markers could also amplify SSR products in other Zoysia species, including Z. *tenuifolia* and Zoysia macrantha (our unpublished data). Thus, these SSR markers will provide an ideal marker system to assist with gene targeting, QTL mapping, variety or species identification, and marker-assisted selection in the Zoysia species. The primer information for other unmapped *Zoysia* SSR markers is available via material transfer agreements for research purposes or via license for commercial purposes.

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